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AUTHOR Westerman, Melvin E.
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ABSTRACT

This paper explores the background and structure of library personnel systems and the characteristics of library personnel resources, including librarians' rights and status as concerns of library personnel management; the credentials of academic librarians; library job design and recruitment; the training of academic librarians; motivational incentives; supervision; resources for librarians; and personnel performance. A bibliography lists 25 sources. (FM)

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PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT AND ACADEMIC LIBRARIES

By

Melvin E. Westerman

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I. Introduction to Personnel Systems in Academic Libraries.

A. An Overview.

Personnel management promotes the development of human resources to achieve their fair treatment in the effective and efficient accomplishment of organizational objectives. Personnel administration includes recruitment, selection, classification, promotion and compensation of personnel in support of personnel management. (Committee, p. 50) Personnel systems are components or subsystems of a larger system or organization. Personnel systems can be viewed as service facilitative functions; or, in a broader sense, as how employees perform and are treated, including managers. (Lee, ch. 1)

The need for management of personnel in libraries develops when staffs grow large enough for job specialization to emerge. This began to happen in American academic libraries in the last third of the 19th century, coinciding closely to the emergence of modern personnel management in government. Developments in academic libraries lagged behind federal and large city personnel systems by a few years. Reform was precipitated in federal and city personnel systems by legislation, where civil service commissions were created and charged with the promotion of merit principles in the management and administration of personnel. (Jackson, p. 136) Academic organizations were, for the most part, not under direct legislative control, and thus could adapt personnel practices to suit their own needs.

Academic personnel systems and library personnel subsystems within them were greatly influenced by developments in federal and city systems. Some academic organizations were agencies of governments, and thus were under civil service regulation from the beginning. Other

academic organizations adapted personnel developments from government to suit their own interests, or under pressure to do so from employees or controlling bodies. Academic librarians learned about and encouraged personnel developments in government through professional associations and professional library publications. (Price) In recent years, federal legislation granting monies to educational organizations have required those organizations to administer their personnel activities in keeping with some of the merit principles. (Peele, 1978)

A major influence on the administration of personnel in libraries was the application of concepts coming out of the "classical" schools of management. The scientific management techniques of Frederick W. Taylor were receiving wide attention during the turn-of-the-century period of development for libraries. The administrative management concepts of Luther Gulick, Mary Follett and Max Weber also affected the administration of libraries. With the development of the human relations school, libraries found a management style to cope with their large numbers of professionals. The systems approach further gives library managers a tool to deal with the complexities of large academic libraries. (Stebbins, p. 14)

The major thrust of this paper is to explore the background and structure of library personnel systems, the characteristics of library personnel resources, the performance, motivation and supervision of librarians and their rights and status as concerns of library personnel management. The existence of civil service and collective bargaining in society affect the attitudes of organizations where there are no direct involvement with either. The values of managers and employees in specific professions are somewhat homogeneous regardless of the details of the specific system they are working within.

Only the legal aspects of employment might vary from system to system. Yet, even in legal matters the larger context of federal and state laws and court decisions affect the interpretation of contracts and regulations. (Dickinson, pp. 82-86)

B. The Structure of Personnel Systems in Academic Libraries.

Like a government agency, an academic library is a subsystem of a larger system or organization. The personnel subsystem of the larger organization is based on its goals and objectives (mission). Library operations, like government services are labor intensive. Personnel is a major expense and a major management activity. Libraries in academic organizations and libraries in governmental systems face the common problem of their personnel having some unique characteristics from personnel in other parts of the system or organization.

The cornerstone of the federal civil service legislation was the Civil Service Act of 1883, called the Pendleton Act. The Pendleton Act, based on a British precedent, established merit principles as the norm for personnel management and administration in the federal government. City and state governments copied the Pendleton Act for their own civil service systems. When the Civil Service Act of 1883 was replaced by the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 nine principles of merit were stated. These slightly expanded the previously stated principles.

1. Qualified persons are to be recruited from appropriate sources.
2. Applicants and employees are to be fairly and equally treated.
3. Equal pay for equal work.
4. Concern for the public is to be evident in employee conduct and integrity.
5. The work force is to be used efficiently and effectively.
6. Performance determines retention, correction and separation of employees.
7. Train employees for better performance.
8. Employees are to be protected from the effects of favoritism and interference in their jobs.
9. Employees are to be protected from reprisal if they report illegal and wasteful activities. (Lee, ch. 2)

A major impact on personnel administration under merit principles is collective bargaining. Collective bargaining covers items traditionally in the purview of merit personnel administration, such as: Financial compensation, grievance procedures, promotion policies, recruitment, selection, job classification, transfer, discipline and discharge. (Committee p. 48)

Because academic organizations have well developed classification and pay plans for their teaching and research staffs, academic librarians are usually arranged into this scheme. A beginning librarian in such a scheme is assigned to a rank equivalent to instructor. Advancement is then based on performance and promise through two intermediate ranks toward the level equivalent to professor. Librarians in such a scheme share in the prestige as well as the perquisites of the academic system, including tenure review.

On the other hand, some academic organizations consider the library to be an administrative arm of the school. The librarians are then included in the classification and pay schemes of the administrative staff. A few academic libraries have librarians under both schemes. (Stebbins, pp. 19-20)

The library staff not classified as librarians are covered by the general classification scheme of the parent organization's personnel system. These positions require special analyses because the responsibilities of library positions vary greatly from the comparable positions in offices elsewhere in the organization.

C. Library Personnel Systems in the Past.

Job classification ideologies expressed by the Federal Civil Service Commission from its beginnings influences classification of

library employees elsewhere. Between 1893 and 1911 schemes of position categories were developed by the Los Angeles Public Library, the Boston Public Library, and by Arthur E. Bostwick, who authored four schemes for various libraries. In these schemes library personnel were grouped into classes according to the work they accomplished. In the Boston scheme considerable emphasis was placed on educational level and experience as grade criteria. One of Bostwick's schemes provided a coded and enforceable standard for personnel selection, promotion, testing, remuneration and staff development. Other libraries copied these personnel classification schemes for their own use. Among the latter group was Harvard University in 1913. (Jackson, pp. 114-117, 136)

In 1905 the Chicago Civil Service Commission's annual report contained a statement of the objective to regrade the city's service on the basis of duties and work performed. There had previously been no such classification because the city had adopted the federal government's practice of grouping positions according to salaries paid to incumbents. Other governments had also adopted this practice, which was a carry-over from an 1853 federal classification act. (p. 43) A formal program to conduct a study of the requirements of grade revision and wage standardization began in 1908. (p. 45) A series of steps were taken, including the establishment of a methodology by Edwin O. Griffenhagen. (p. 51) The Chicago Public Library benefited from the uniform method of study so that improved testing, selection and promotion were possible. The staff was reorganized to greatly improve productivity and flexibility as the necessity of work demanded. (pp. 142-144) This methodology for the detailed and systematic study of job requirements was subsequently

used in many jurisdictions throughout the country, including some academic libraries.

Also in 1908, President Theodore Roosevelt called for a thorough revision of the duties classification system for federal employees along with estimates of costs for a new salary scale to be used uniformly across departmental lines. This advance in the application of merit principles provided librarians with an opportunity to prove that their responsibilities, qualifications and knowledge deserved higher recognition than they had received in the past. (pp. 39-40)

A Joint Congressional Commission was formed for the study. They appointed committees, which eventually analyzed 107,000 departmental, agency and District of Columbia positions. Librarians were involved in the investigative phase of the study. The Commission submitted its report to Congress in March of 1920. The report called for new clarity of job specifications and descriptions. Job content statements were to be written in definitive form and were to describe the work performed, typical duties and responsibilities involved, and education, training and skills required. It also recommended classification and salary adjustments along merit principle guidelines. Librarians received substantial increases in level and were classified with scientific, technical and professional services. But, the salary recommendations fell far below other professional groups and were still closely aligned to compensation scales recommended for positions involving clerical, office and commercial work. The nationwide importance of this issue was recognized, and in June 1920 the American Library Association passed a resolution urging the elimination of the discrepancies and

inequalities in the library service classification recommendations. Librarians throughout the country supported this District of Columbia Library Association and government librarians in their struggle for equality under the law.

The job analysis questionnaires were re-examined and the equivalency of library service to other professional occupations was established. The original problem was partially due to a lack of specificity in library job descriptions that made them appear different from the standard analyses of the other professions. On the basis of the re-examination a broader classification of librarians was formulated, reflecting progressive degrees of education, training, technical proficiency, experience, research capacity, and administrative and technical responsibilities conforming to the classification schedules of other professional services. The new classifications for librarians were incorporated into the Lehlbach Bill, which was introduced to Congress on December 18, 1930. The Lehlbach Bill failed to become law, thus putting the reclassification claims of librarians in a precarious state. While a revised (and substantially reduced) version of the Bill was being battled through Congress the librarians were making every legal, professional and publicity effort to gain acceptance for their equitable treatment. These efforts further influenced nationwide consideration of the classification of librarians. (pp. 150-168)

The Classification Act of 1923 created a Personnel Classification Board of three persons to establish various grades and salary ranges in each service. But, its definitions were so ambiguous that librarians were again allocated to grades in the clerical service - based on

salaries they received. Ironically, the very criterion that the law has been passed to correct had been used by the board against librarians.

Through an appeal procedure, librarians again proved their claims to professional classification and the Board completely reversed its previous allocation. Professional standards were written into the job specifications governing the selection of future government librarians. Salaries increased in excess of one-third over their previous level. (Price, pp. 735-736)

The crisis in government librarians' classification motivated the American Library Association to become involved in the establishment of classification and compensation schemes. Fred Telford submitted a classification of library positions to the American Library Association Council in 1927. (Jackson, pp. 319-331) The format of the class specifications in the Telford report is still used today in advertisement of positions in some academic libraries.

The American Library Association continued its efforts at classification and pay schemes. In 1943 they published Classification and Pay Plans for Libraries in Institutions of Higher Education in three volumes. Volume I was designed to provide recommended job specifications and salary scales in non-degree conferring academic institutions, such as junior colleges. Volume II was for four year institutions; and, Volume III was designed for academic libraries at universities. (pp. 335-336)

In the latter 1940's and during the 1950's academic libraries became seriously interested in classification issues in qualitative terms in an effort to meet accreditation standards and changing academic needs. Encouraged by the findings of the various Carnegie reports and

the evaluation work of the North Central Association, academic libraries began to take advantage of the library survey to improve many aspects of operations, including personnel. Published surveys became the guidelines for equalization of salaries in various institutions across the country. (pp. 350-351)

In a 1972 survey published by the Office of University Library Management of the Association for Research Libraries the state of personnel management in academic libraries is summarized in one short paragraph.

> Manpower planning as a management approach is difficult for most research librarians to accomplish. The obvious constraints of the university environment make it difficult to systematically: (1) assess, on a continuing basis, the skills, experience, and capability of individuals in all levels of the library staff, (2) project staff requirements over one year, three years, five years, and other long-term periods, (3) determine staff skills and potential that should be recruited now to meet future operation requirements, and finally, and (4) plan the staff development efforts needed to move present staff toward future roles. Libraries are prevented from doing this because, for the most part, they do not have the resources or university support for doing it. The financial difficulties faced by higher education are changing this response, and more universities are looking for the benefits of manpower planning. At the same time, libraries need to change their attitudes toward addressing their staff needs, locating potential candidates, and then attracting these individuals with meaningful, challenging work with career potential. (A Survey, pp. 3-4)

The present-day response of libraries to the need for manpower planning has not come from the availability of resources or university support previously not available, but rather because of tighter budgets due to less money and higher operating costs. Further, the acceptance of librarians as full faculty in many institutions during the 1960's and 1970's has changed the nature of academic librarianship in ways that are still being discovered by libraries and universities.

II. Academic Library Personnel Resources.

A. Credentials of Academic Librarians.

The concern for minimum requirements "to assure competent attendants" in libraries was recorded by the State University of New York in 1894. But, the measurement through test devices developed in public and governmental libraries. The concept of testing librarians in civil service systems began in 1883 with the Pendleton Act. Other libraries began to use examinations for entrance, training and promotion in the 1890's. Testing for certification began in 1908. Certification has continued in public librarianship. One of the major foci of the testing movement has been to control the types of personnel selected for library work through standards of selection and educational criteria. (Jackson, pp. 401-427)

In the 1880's a library school was established at Columbia University by Melvil Dewey amidst much controversy. In 1899 it was moved to the State Library at Albany, New York, where it continued until it returned permanently to Columbia in 1926. Other schools were begun before the turn of the century, mostly in libraries, but including one at Drexel University. When Dewey started his school there were only a few large libraries in the United States, and most of them trained their new staff members as they were hired. The early library schools trained people to do the things they would do when hired by a library later. (Bramley, pp. 78-81)

In the early 1920's academic matter was added to library school curicula. The existing schools were transferred to academic institutions or closed, as the result of the switch from training to education of students. After World War II, library schools began awarding a

masters degree in place of the fifth year bachelor's degree, a further recognition of the emphasis on education of the future librarian. The graduates of the schools whose master's degree programs were accredited by the American Library Association satisfied the minimum requirements for entry into academic librarianship. (Evans pp. 211-212)

B. Library Job Design and Recruitment.

The education of librarians in master's degree programs accredited by the American Library Association precludes the need for tests of knowledge of librarianship for graduates of these programs. Academic libraries rely on evaluations of credentials as preinterview criteria for selection. The first evaluation of a candidate for a position is generally based on a resume and/or application blank. These credentials from potential employees are usually elicited through advertisements in professional journals. Less often they might come from contacting colleagues, waiting for applications to come unsolicited, or visits to library schools. (A Survey, p. 3) The selection of a candidate for a job based on one of these last three methods could be hard to defend in the case of an affirmative action suit.

The framework of the recruiting process is mandated by federal, state and institutional laws and regulations. Within the legal restraints placed on the recruitment process it is necessary to have a technique to achieve the objective of determination of the best qualified person for a specific position. First, the position must be clearly defined: job responsibilities identify the characteristics of the one who will fill it best. People can then be evaluated for their future performance in the position on the basis of what they did

in the past. Areas outside of work experience should only be explored in the case of someone seeking a first position in the field (Stern, pp. 355-357)

Academic libraries base their classification of employees on the grouping of similar types of expertise. The basic division in most libraries is between technical operations and public services. Technical operations include acquisitions processes for new books and materials, and cataloging and classification of the materials after they are acquired. Public services include maintenance of the collections in the library through control of circulation, ordering materials, evaluation of users' needs and organizing the resources available to meet them. Public services also provide in-the-library and external help in the use of the collections. Staff are recruited and promoted within these structures for the fulfillment of the functions of the library.

C. Training and Development of Academic Librarians.

Staff development can be stated in terms of the individual or in terms of the organization. All that benefits the individual does not necessarily benefit the library, and vice versa. The balance between costs and benefits related to the individual employee in the context of the organization may cause a conflict of interest to arise.

The forms of staff development in libraries can be stated in general terms to include: orientation, programs, on-the-job training, opportunities to attend workshops and institutes, membership and participation in professional associations, opportunities to prepare for advancement, active encouragement for individual enrichment, permission to attend courses or to pursue a degree, job rotation, temporary

assignments to another's responsibilities, and assignment to library committees.

Training is at the core of most staff development programs. It can be used to reconcile the abilities of the individual to the needs of the organization. In conjunction with personnel selection, training can be an important means for producing organizational change.

Although past attempts at training have left a negative feeling in many managers toward its benefits, its proponents point out that its potential has not been effectively utilized. The proponents say it has been too briefly, superficially and improperly supported. They say that research indicates that effective training can lead to overcoming many of the dysfunctional incidents that plague organizations, such as: absenteeism, turnover, tardiness, dissatisfaction and boredom. The key to success seems to be the commitment of managers and supervisors to continually provide appropriate types and amounts of training. (Martell, p. 153)

Continuing education has gained popularity among professional academic librarians in recent years. Although it can be considered a type of training, it has some facets that remove it from the more conservative definition of training. At the most, they require released time from the library for participants.

A major force in providing opportunities in continuing education for librarians has been the Continuing Library Education Network Exchange (CLENE). CLENE was formed in 1976 after being recommended by the American Library Association and the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science. (Snyder, p. 145) CLENE was formed to fulfill a need for continuous updating and renewing of librarians'

knowledge and competencie in the changing field of library and information science.

CLENE's activities ar focused in four major program areas. The first is needs as essment and problem definition. The focus here is on cont nuous assessment of individual and group needs for conti uing education and on the definition of problems. The sec nd area, information acquisition and coordination, involve the acquisition, coordination, and exchange of informati n about existing continuing education resources in library cience. The third area is product and resource develop nt. This involves the planning, design, production, and evaluation of CLENE services. The fourth area, communic tions and delivery, involves creating an awareness and ense of need for continuing education on the part of e ployers, and in planning ways and means to deliver mate ials to users. (Stone, p. 316)

CLENE is an umbrella o rganization for groups and individuals interested in the advancement of continuing education for librarians, include library associatio s at all levels, libraries of all types, library schools, and gover nent agencies, including the National Commission on Libraries and In formation Science.

III. Performance and Academ lc Librarians.

A. Methods of Measuring L ibrarians' Performance.

The evaluation of libr rians and other staff in academic libraries was traditionally orie ed toward "classical" organization theory concepts. Performance of t e individual was measured against the supervisor's concept of what he assigned task required for its successful completion or fulfillme t. The methods of personnel evaluation practiced before 1970's und rscored the notion that library positions were "task" oriented. Thus the traits approach to evaluation of personnel was viewed as promot ng the efficiency and effectiveness of library operations. The rigi categories of traits against which individuals were measured to re ord the performance of their tasks did not allow creativity by the rev ewer in the review process or by the reviewee

in the development of the position. Instead, it focused on the past ability of the incumbent to fill the job as it had been proscribed.

Library administrators and managers were reluctant to accept research in the social sciences that suggested that what was good for the employee was good for the library. In essence they practiced McGregor's Theory X, with conventional organizational structures and management policies designed to direct and control employee behavior to suit the need of the organization. Under the influence of faculty evaluation procedures for promotion and tenure, under increased pressure from librarians, and through articles in professional journals library managers began to acknowledge the fundamental purpose of personnel evaluation to improve performance. Methods of evaluation were tried that began to approach McGregor's Theory Y, with a professional's work managed by establishing desireable results and objectives and the individual's commitment to them.

McGregor assumes the existence of measurable objectives. This type of management encourages the professional to bring his talent, training and creativity to bear on his job. The logical conclusion of this argument is that the professional ought to be evaluated by the degree to which he or she achieves the given objectives. This type of evaluation procedure would be nearly equivalent to self-evaluation, in that it is based on a system of self-direction and self-control. McGregor believes that such an appraisal provides the only fruitful opportunity for the superior to realize the full potential represented by professional personnel resources. (DeProspo, pp. 62-65)

But, we do not live in the perfect world of theory. The objectives set for professional academic librarians in a faculty setting are not

self-controlled. Rather, the objectives are a combination of the old "task" oriented evaluation method and criteria that are used to evaluate faculty in general. The heading, "Librarianship Ability" is used to establish the base line for evaluation for promotion and tenure in the library faculty system. This is equivalent to "Teaching Ability" for classroom oriented faculty, i. e. the "Task" of teaching faculty. To this is added "Research" and "Scholarship" to record the academic output of the librarian.

In academic organizations where the library is organizationally within the administrative ranks, not among the faculty, a variety of methods of evaluation of staff have been used. These are both objective and subjective in nature. The general concept that emerged in the 1970's has been to focus on the future potential of the person in the position rather than on the past ability to fulfill the requirements of the job. Although it must be admitted that the future is not separable from the past, the emphasis on being constructive helps overcome the sense of the evaluation being a periodic hurdle that must be passed. (Peele, 1972)

B. Motivational Incentives for Librarians.

Librarians could easily be identified with the accountants and engineers used by Frederick Herzberg and his colleagues in the studies dealing with the two-factor theory of motivation. Librarians are very aware of their environment and able to express their feelings about the conditions in their place of employment. Many factors of motivation in libraries are "hygienic", others are "positive".

Herzberg suggests that hygienic factors can only motivate in a negative sense in that they produce job dissatisfaction when operative.

When these factors are satisfied they become neutral and no longer motivate behavior. Included in the hygienic factors are: "supervision, inter-personal relations, physical working conditions, salary, company policies and administrative practices, benefits, and job security". (Lee, p. 314)

The positive motivators related to work include:

> 1) achievement, or the feeling of having accomplished a job, 2) recognition, or having someone praise or blame the worker for performance, 3) work itself, or perception of the nature of the job, 4) responsibility, or having the duty for one's own work and possibly the work of others, and 5) advancement, or changing one's position in the hierarchy of the organization. (p. 314)

Library jobs vary in complexity, but most professional positions in libraries satisfy the hierarchy of human needs suggested by Abraham Maslow. Maslow sees human behavior as being the result of unsatisfied needs. These needs are hierarchical in that one level precedes the other in importance, and they lead to a search for gratification.

> 1) Physiological needs involve maintaining the body's normal balances of water, oxygen, salt and the like (homeostasis). Deprivation of a needed item, such as water, will result in behavior to satisfy the need. 2) Safety needs include not only protection from physical dangers but also the sense of safety that comes with routine behavior. 3) Belongingness and love needs entail the sense of being part of a social group. 4) Esteem needs involve the desire to differentiate oneself from others. While belonging needs may have the effect of submerging one in a group, esteem needs make a person unique from others in the group. 5) The need for self-actualization entails self-fulfillment or maximizing one's potential. (p. 312)

C. . Supervision of Academic Librarians.

The roles supervisors perform depend on group tasks, membership resources, type and level of organization, distribution of roles among group members, maturity, and activities external to the group. Alan

Bare's survey of the staff of the Rutgers University Library System identifies eight supervisory variables: 1) Counseling and team building, 2) Coordination and control, 3) staffing, 4) formalization, 5) training, 6) external representation, 7) communication, and 8) performance-reward contingency management.

Bare studied 43 library work groups which encompassed 345 persons. Supervisory role performances were measured by averaging the responses to questionnaires administered to the members of each group. Group performance was likewise measured by responses to questionnaires answered by supervisors. Then the supervisors' performance assessments were compared to the members' perceptions, absence rates, and group ratings provided by top managers of the library.

Supervisors were perceived differently by group members, but four dimensions of their supervision were found to relate to work group performance in libraries. These were staffing, training, performance-reward contingency management, and counseling and team building. (Bare)

From Bare's findings we might infer that the functions of classification, compensation administration, recruitment, examination, probation, tenure, grievance, appeals, dismissal, and collective bargaining, manpower development, planning and forecasting, and affirmative action are not the primary responsibilities of the supervisor so much as are selection, evaluation, promotion discipline, training, motivation, direction and control.

IV. Rights of Academic Librarians.

A. Legal Aspects

Freedom of speech is a coveted right in academic organizations. In times when conflicting opinions are being expressed, great care is

exercised to allow positions to be expressed and exercised within broad guidelines of preservation of the organization. Political activities are allowed and even encouraged in some situations.

Librarians are held accountable for the performance of their responsibilities in the library and to those the library serve. Administrators and managers are logically accountable for the discrete performance of their responsibilities.

Librarians in academic organizations are required to sign the same loyalty oaths as all other employees, but this requirement is not absolute. A dissenting employee can be hired without signing any oath. Laws restricting the activities of employees of any jurisdiction to which a library belongs would affect the librarians' rights. Enforcement of morally oriented laws has become lax in recent decades. The organization's regulations on employee conduct usually are not much different from the laws of the larger political system. In academic organizations the often mentioned reason for the ultimate discipline of dismissal is "moral terpitude". The documents that state the offense carefully avoid the definition of what it is.

The focus of employee rights in the past two decades has been on equal rights and affirmative action. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 was the landmark legislation with the establishment of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). Title VII gave the Commission power to prosecute cases of discrimination in the private sector. In 1972 the Equal Employment Opportunity Act extended Title VII to the federal, state and local governments. This law addresses discrimination based on race, sex, color, religion and national origin. (Lee, ch. 9)

Title IX of the Education Amendment of 1972 prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in employment in any educational program that receives federal financial assistance. This ammendment has had profound effect on the management of personnel systems in academic libraries.

B. Socioeconomic Trends.

In the decade of the 1970's a number of women's and minorities' groups were formed within librarianship. These included the Black Caucus, the Asian American Librarians Caucus, Library Services for American Indian People, and REFORMA: National Association of Spanish-Speaking Librarians. The American Library Association sponsored several women's units, including the Task Force on Women and the Committee on the Status of Women in Librarianship.

Educationally, there appears to be much to be done for minorities in librarianship. In 1974/75 the graduates with master's degrees in librarianship was 89.9 percent white, 5.3 percent black, 1.9 percent Asian-American, 1.1 percent Spanish-surnamed, .2 percent American Indian and 1.7 percent other. The profession is statistically higher in women. In 1974/75, 78.9 percent of master's level graduates were women. This percentage has been fairly constant throughout the decades.

An Association of College and Research Libraries salary survey in 1976 revealed that while women comprised 61.5 percent of the academic librarians, they headed only 35.8 percent of the libraries. One study showed that in 1930 19 of the heads of the 74 largest college and university libraries were women, while in 1969 there were only three women

at the top posts of these sam e libraries. Female deans of American Libraries Association accredi ted library schools dropped steadily from 50 percent to 19 percent in 1 970.

Special Libraries Associa tion salary surveys illustrate the effects of women's activities on the change of salary differentials over a period of time. Members of the A sociation are polled every three years. In 1970 the median salary for women respondents was 77 percent of that for men. In 1973 the differe tial was 76 percent. In 1976 it was 81 percent. In 1979 it was 92 pe rcent. (Dickinson, pp. 86-97)

Not only is there a sala y differential within librarianship, but academic librarians are paid l ess as a group than equivalent positions within the same institutions. A recent comparison showed a lag of between 20 and 25 percent in sal aries for librarians behind equivalent ranks of other faculty members at the same institution.

C. Commitment to the Concept

Gains for librarians as a profession have been significant over the decades since the classifi cation struggle of federal and District of Columbia librarians in the 1920's. But, the truth in the statement by Senator Thomas Sterling on December 1, 1922 continues to apply in the 1980's. He said,

> The library administrator who would give real library service and operate a lar ge university of learning for the whole people faces a two-edged difficulty; he must induce highly qualified p ersons to prepare themselves for library work so they may render expert service in placing at the disposal o men of today the accumulated knowledge and learning of the past, and he must induce them with salaries that a e considerably below what such persons may reasonab y expect to earn in several other occupations with al most equally great attractions. (Sterling, p. 63)

Professional library associations have been the forum for much debate on rights of librarians. The present need is for the profession to unite and present itself to the parent organizations for their mutual betterment, such as was done in the 1920's, rather than fighting among white males and everyone else in librarianship over who is getting the best share of the ever decreasing benefits.

V. The Status of Academic Librarians.

A. Resources for Academic Librarians.

The subject matter of librarianship is more diverse, more scientific and more complex than ever before. Many functions in libraries require specialists for planning and implementation. Library managers often must evaluate people with skills they themselves were not required to accomplish. Specialties in libraries include: online searching, computerized cataloging, microform technology, interlibrary networks, and systems analysis, beside the traditional subject specialties.

The drive toward faculty status has led to an improvement of the qualifications of academic librarians, generally. Academic librarians are better educated than they ever have been. More have master's degrees in librarianship with extra degrees, and more are participating in continuing education courses, workshops and institutes for professional growth.

As the result of job markets tightening elsewhere in education earlier than in librarianship, here has been an influx of people originally trained in other fields. These people take the master's degree in library science to qualify for entrance into the field. Also,

practicing librarians are improving their academic qualifications and broadening their backgrounds by using vacations, leaves and grants to study further in librarianship or in other fields.

> In 1975, 95 percent of the academic librarians had the MLS and 16 percent had a second graduate degree in another field. In 1966 only 83.7 percent had the BLS or higher degree (in librarianship). Moreover, the number of librarians with the doctorate in librarianship has tripled in the decade from 300 in 1969 to and estimated 900 in 1979. (Galloway, p. 350)

Academic libraries use several devices to give people experience or opportunities to show their capabilities. The three prominent ones are committee assignments, special projects, and task force assignments. Although the numbers of openings at middle and higher levels of library management are few, opportunities become available for advancement for those who are willing to relocate to an academic library in another area of the country. (Bailey, p. 327)

B. Performance of Academic Librarians.

There are higher requirements for selection, for promotion and for tenure in academic libraries than ever before. Academic libraries require evidences of potential for professional growth before appointing a new librarian to their staffs. Once hired, a careful track record is kept on each librarian's progress in designated growth areas. Librarianship ability, scholarship and research capabilities are especially watched in organizations where librarians have faculty status. Some academic organizations require a second master's degree for promotion to associate librarian.

Some academic organizations offer their librarians a status similar to, but not identical with, other faculty members. Others practice a two-track system in which some librarians are considered faculty and some have a civil service type status. There is a division of opinion

among librarians over the benefits of collective bargaining in bringing salary improvements and the ability to affect evaluation and promotion.

There has been an increase in publications by academic librarians since 1969.

> The number of library science periodicals has increased from 57 to 94 by one count, a 10-year gain of 65 percent, while the number of academic librarians has only increased by 21.5 percent. More than a dozen of the new publications are of national importance, and the contributors are mainly academic librarians. This decade has also seen the emergence of several new publishing houses such as Pieran Press, Neal-Schuman, and Libraries Unlimited, as well as the growth of older publishing houses which specialize in books written by libraries. (Galloway, p. 350)

Some beginning librarians have been caught in a "Catch 22" situation where they do not have the time to learn their jobs and meet the obligations of faculty status before the time comes for the decision on their tenure. If newcomers do not meet the professional growth requirements they loose their jobs after six years of satisfactory performance. (p. 351)

Peer review is practiced in most academic libraries. In many it has been the result of the installation of faculty promotion and tenure processes. But, peer review is also widely practiced in libraries where the librarians have administrative staff status. (Maloney, p. 9)

C. Rights of Academic Librarians.

A salary study for 1977/78 by the American Association of University Professors "shows that the average faculty member who works two months less than the average nonadministrative academic librarian is paid 23 percent more". (Galloway, p. 350) By becoming an administrator, the average academic librarian can overtake the average assistant professor in salary by still ignoring the longer work year. But, the

average library administrator lags 22 percent behind the administrator with professorial rank, or 48.5 percent behind if the difference in work year is included. There is a 51.4 percent lag in salary between the average nonadministrative academic librarian and the average faculty member who works two months less when the difference in work year is considered. Among librarians, those who are in public academic organizations receive better salaries than those in private independent or church-related organizations. Only in two-year academic organizations do librarians salaries approximate those of other faculty members. (pp. 350-351)

Librarians at Temple University appealed to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission in 1978 to gain salaries more nearly equivalent to those of other faculty members. They claimed that librarians get paid less because they work in a "women's profession". The case was not approved by EEOC, but the librarians were authorized to take their case to court. (p. 351)

Some accuse the profession of librarianship of promoting the organization at the expense of the individual. They cite the American Library Association for being unrestricted by any qualifications for membership, and thus unable to represent the individual librarian in any negotiations concerning compensation, benefits or working conditions. In fact, the membership of ALA consists of organizations as well as individuals who are librarians and other individuals who are not librarians. (Hodgin)

Historically, it can be observed that the only problem on which librarians ever united together to represent their interests was the

classification issue in the 1920's. Perhaps the federal government is again setting the stage for another crisis in librarianship. Two bills, HR 3570 and S 1411, presently in committee, call for creation of a new Office of Federal Information Management, and putting an information manager in each agency. In the meanwhile, President Carter has issued an executive order to review for possible elimination the functions of all agencies that could be purchased as outside services rather than be provided inhouse. Among the services listed for review is libraries. (Information Manager, recent issues)

While the recent White House Conference on Libraries and Information Services has called for an Assistant Secretary in the new Department of Education to be specifically responsible for libraries, the trend of governmental actions appears to be undermining the security of the librarians. These are similar to the current trends in academic librarianship. The heads of many academic libraries have been promoted to the level of Dean, but reductions-in-force for economic and programmatic reasons are seriously threatening the prestige librarians have gained by providing quality services and are blocking their hopes of salary equalization.

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